to prosecute the cancelled subject matter in another application. This amendment has been made for the sole purpose of advancing the prosecution of this case.

ORF-R is also known as ORF-F, *nef*, 3'orf, B, E', or F gene. See Gallo et al., "HIV/HTLV Gene Nomenclature," Nature, 333, 504 (1988) (Exhibit 1); and Wain-Hobson et al., "Nucleotide Sequence of the AIDS Virus, LAV," Cell, 9-17, 12 (1985) (Exhibit 2).

In Paper No. 7, the Examiner stated that

> [a]pplicant has not demonstrated a utility for these sequences as probes. How specific are they for detecting HIV and distinguishing it from other retroviruses, in particular HTLV I and HTLV II?

See page 4, lines 9-11 of Paper No. 7.

In applicants' Response, filed November 24, 1993, it was noted that the claimed nucleic acid has utility as a diagnostic probe. See page 7 of the Response, and page 14, line 11 through page 15, line 8 of the specification. Gallo et al., cited above, notes that *nef* is not found in HTLV I or HTLV II. Thus, applicants' claimed probe has utility as a diagnostic probe unique to HIV-1, distinguishable from HTLV I and HTLV II.

It is courteously submitted that this application is in condition for allowance. Reconsideration and reexamination of this application, and allowance of the pending claim at the Examiner's convenience, are respectfully requested.

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The Commissioner is hereby authorized to charge any fees associated with this Amendment to our Deposit Account No. 06-0916. If a fee is required for an Extension of Time under 37 C.F.R. § 1.136 not accounted for above, such extension is requested and should also be charged to our Deposit Account.

Respectfully submitted,

FINNEGAN, HENDERSON, FARABOW,
GARRETT & DUNNER

By: Michele M Schafer
Michele M. Schafer
Reg. No. 34,717

Dated: February 15, 1994

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Exhibit 1

HIV/HTLV gene nomenclature

SIR—The complexities of the genomes of human retroviruses (the human T-cell leukaemia viruses, HTLV-I and HTLV-II, and the AIDS-causing human immunodeficiency viruses, HIV-1 and HIV-2) are being unravelled at a rapid pace which is likely to continue and expand. In addition to containing a large ensemble of positive and negative regulatory genes that orchestrate virus expression, these viruses are also remarkable in that they seem to have converged onto parallel regulatory pathways. Two of the regulatory genes of the immunodeficiency viruses are analogous to the two regulatory genes of the leukaemia viruses, although their detailed mechanisms of action may be quite different. Deciphering the modes of action of the regulatory genes of these viruses is crucial to the understanding of their pathogenesis as well as to development of therapeutic agents. Because of the tremendous activity in this field, more than one name has sometimes been given to a single gene and the same name may also apply to more than one gene. In the interest of the many new investigators entering the field for the first time, we feel it is important that we reach a standard nomenclature for all known genes of HIV and HTLV. We propose the scheme outlined in the table.

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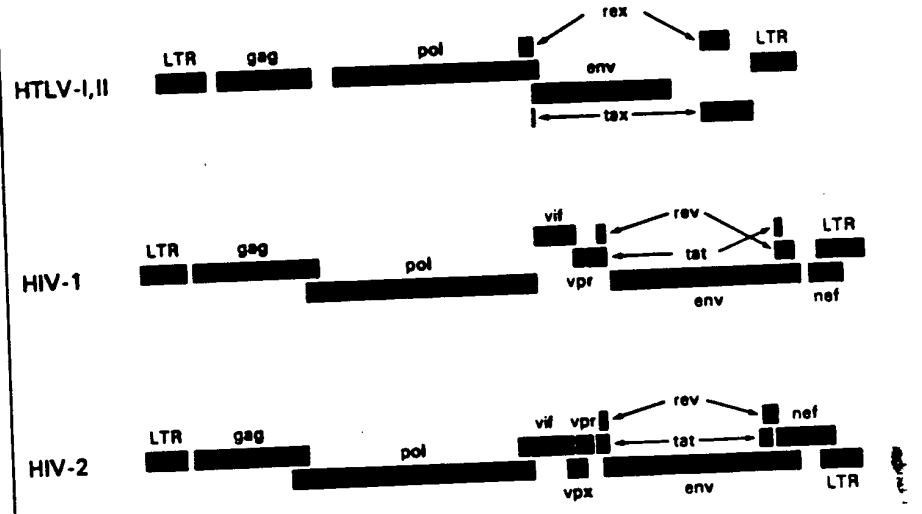
Proposed name (and derivation)	Previous names	Molecular mass ($\times 10^{-3}$)	Known function
HTLV-I and HTLV-II genes:			
tax$_1$ (transactivator)	*x-lor, p40x, tat*$_1$	41, 41, 42	Transactivator of all viral proteins
tax$_2$	*tat*$_2$, *TA*	38	
rex$_1$(regulator of expression	*pp27x, tel*	27	Regulates expression of virion proteins
rex$_2$ virion proteins)		25	
HIV genes:			
tat (transactivator)	*tat-3, TA*	14	Transactivator of all viral proteins
rev (regulator of expression of virion proteins)	*art, trs*	19, 20	Regulates expression of virion proteins
vif (virion infectivity factor)	*sor, A, P', Q*	23	Determines virus infectivity
vpr (R)	*R*	?	Unknown
nef (negative factor)	*3'orf, B, E', F*	27	Reduces virus expression, GTP-binding
vpx (X) (only in HIV-2 and SIV)	*X*	16, 14	Unknown



Vpr and *vpx* are temporary names and may be changed when more information about their functions is available. Subscripts 1 and 2 would be used to distinguish genes of HIV-1 and HIV-2 (for example, *rev*$_1$ and *rev*$_2$). It is expected that genes of the simian viruses (STLV-I, SIV) would follow similar nomenclature with the subscripts STLV or SIV as appropriate.

Estimating the incubation period for AIDS patients

SIR—The nonparametric analyses of the data on transfusion-related AIDS considered by Medley *et al.*[1] indicate problems of identifiability. With data obtained by retrospective determination of the time of infection for diagnosed AIDS cases, it is only possible to estimate the early part of the incubation distribution up to a constant of proportionality. The same applies to the total number of infections by blood transfusion before any given time. The transfusion data themselves are unable to discriminate between high infection rates coupled with long incubation times on the one hand, or low infection rates and short incubation times on the other.

As do Medley *et al.*[1], we postulate a function $h(x)$ which specifies the increase over time of the number of HIV-infected individuals who eventually develop AIDS, and a probability density function $f(s)$ for the incubation time of those individuals. The corresponding likelihood function can be maximized jointly with respect to h and f. As the likelihood depends only on the product of h and f, it is not possible to estimate either of these fuctions completely; they may be individually estimated only up to constants of proportionality c and c^{-1}, respectively. Nonparametric estimates of the proportion of eventual AIDS cases that are diagnosed within t years of infection, $F(t) = \int_0^t f(u)du$, are given in the figure for the three age groups considered by Medley *et al.*. In this figure we show the estimates of $F(t)$ so that for each group, $c = F(7.5)$. For the children, the levelling of the estimate of $F(t)$ by about 3.5 years suggests that the whole of the distribution of incubation times has been seen; it may then be reasonable to suppose that $c = 1$ but, as also noted by Medley *et al.*, a second wave of incubation times that exceed 7.5 years is not excluded by these data. For the other two age groups, there is nothing in the transfusion data themselves to suggest a value for c. As a consequence, it is impossible to place any upper bound on the median incubation time. To estimate this,

Exhibit 2

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Nucleotide Sequence of the AIDS Virus, LAV

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Summary

The complete 9193-nucleotide sequence of the probable causative agent of AIDS, lymphadenopathy-associated virus (LAV), has been determined. The deduced genetic structure is unique: it shows, in addition to the retroviral gag, pol, and env genes, two novel open reading frames we call Q and F. Remarkably, Q is located between pol and env and F is half-encoded by the U3 element of the LTR. These data place LAV apart from the previously characterized family of human T cell leukemia/lymphoma viruses.

Introduction

The recent onset of severe opportunistic infections among previously healthy male homosexuals has led to the characterization of the acquired immune deficiency syndrome (AIDS) (Gottlieb et al., 1981; Masur et al., 1981). The disease has spread dramatically, and new high-risk groups have been identified: patients receiving blood products, intravenous drug addicts, and individuals originating from Haiti and Central Africa (Piot et al., 1984). AIDS is a fatal disease, and there is at present no specific treatment. The causative agent was suspected to be of viral origin since the epidemiological pattern of AIDS was consistent with a transmissible disease, and cases had been reported after treatment involving ultrafiltered anti-hemophilia preparations (Daly and Scott, 1983). A decisive step in AIDS research was the discovery of a novel human retrovirus called lymphadenopathy-associated virus (LAV) (Barré-Sinoussi et al., 1983). The properties of the virus consistent with its etiological role in AIDS are: the recovery of many independent isolates from patients with AIDS or related diseases (Montagnier et al., 1984); high LAV seropositivity among these populations (Brun-Vézinet et al., 1984); a tropism and cytopathic effect in vitro for the helper/inducer T-lymphocyte subset T4 (Klatzmann et al., 1984), also found depleted in vivo.

Other groups have reported the isolation of human retroviruses, the human T cell leukemia/lymphoma/lymphotropic virus type III (HTLV-III) (Popovic et al., 1984) and the AIDS-associated retrovirus (ARV), which display biological and sero-epidemiological properties very similar to if not identical with those of LAV (Levy et al., 1984; Popovic et al., 1984; Schüpbach et al., 1984). Both LAV and HTLV-III genomes have been molecularly cloned (Alizon et al., 1984; Hahn et al., 1984). Their restriction maps show remarkable agreement, including a Hind III restriction site polymorphism, bearing in mind the variability of this virus (Shaw et al., 1984) and confirming that these two viruses represent a single viral lineage.

In addition to its obvious diagnostic and therapeutic potential, the LAV DNA nucleotide sequence is essential to an understanding of the genetics and molecular biology of the virus and its classification among retroviruses. We report here the complete 9193-nucleotide sequence of the LAV genome established from cloned proviral DNA.

Results

DNA Sequence and Organization of the LAV Genome

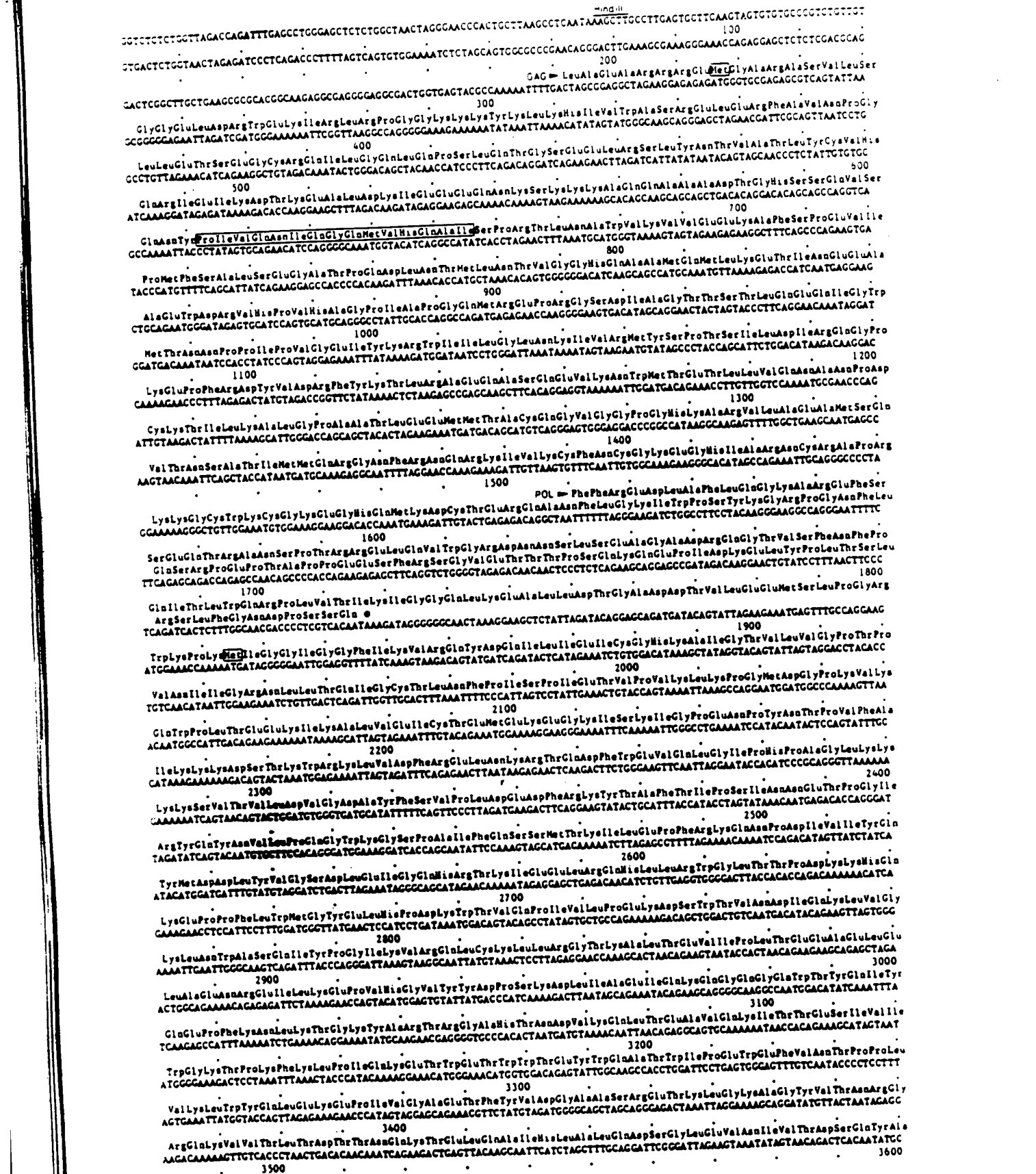
We have reported previously the molecular cloning of both cDNA and integrated proviral forms of LAV (Alizon et al., 1984). The recombinant phage clones were isolated from a genomic library of LAV-infected human T-lymphocyte DNA partially digested by Hind III. The insert of recombinant phage λJ19 was generated by Hind III cleavage within the R element of the long terminal repeat (LTR). Thus each extremity of the insert contains one part of the LTR. We have eliminated the possibility of clustered Hind III sites within R by sequencing part of an LAV cDNA clone, pLAV 75 (Alizon et al., 1984), corresponding to this region (data not shown). Thus the total sequence information of the LAV genome can be derived from the λJ19 clone.

Using the M13 shotgun cloning and dideoxy chain termination method (Sanger et al., 1977), we have determined the nucleotide sequence of λJ19 insert. The reconstructed viral genome with two copies of the R sequence is 9193 nucleotides long. The numbering system starts at the cap site (see below) of virion RNA (Figure 1).

The viral (+) strand contains the statutory retroviral genes encoding the core structural proteins (gag), reverse transcriptase (pol), and envelope protein (env), and two extra open reading frames (orf) that we call Q and F (Table 1). The genetic organization of LAV, 5'LTR-gag-pol-Q-env-F-3'LTR, is unique. Whereas in all replication-competent retroviruses pol and env genes overlap, in LAV they are separated by orf Q (192 amino acids) followed by four small (<100 triplets) orf. The orf F (206 amino acids) slightly overlaps the 3' end of env and is remarkable in that it is half-encoded by the U3 region of the LTR.

Such a structure clearly places LAV apart from previously sequenced retroviruses (Figure 2). The (−) strand is apparently noncoding. The additional Hind III site of the LAV clone λJ81 (with respect to λJ19) maps to the apparently noncoding region between Q and env (positions 5166–5745). Starting at position 5501 is a sequence (AAGCCT) that differs by a single base (underlined) from the Hind III recognition sequence. It is anticipated that many of the restriction site polymorphisms between different isolates will map to this region.

Cell
10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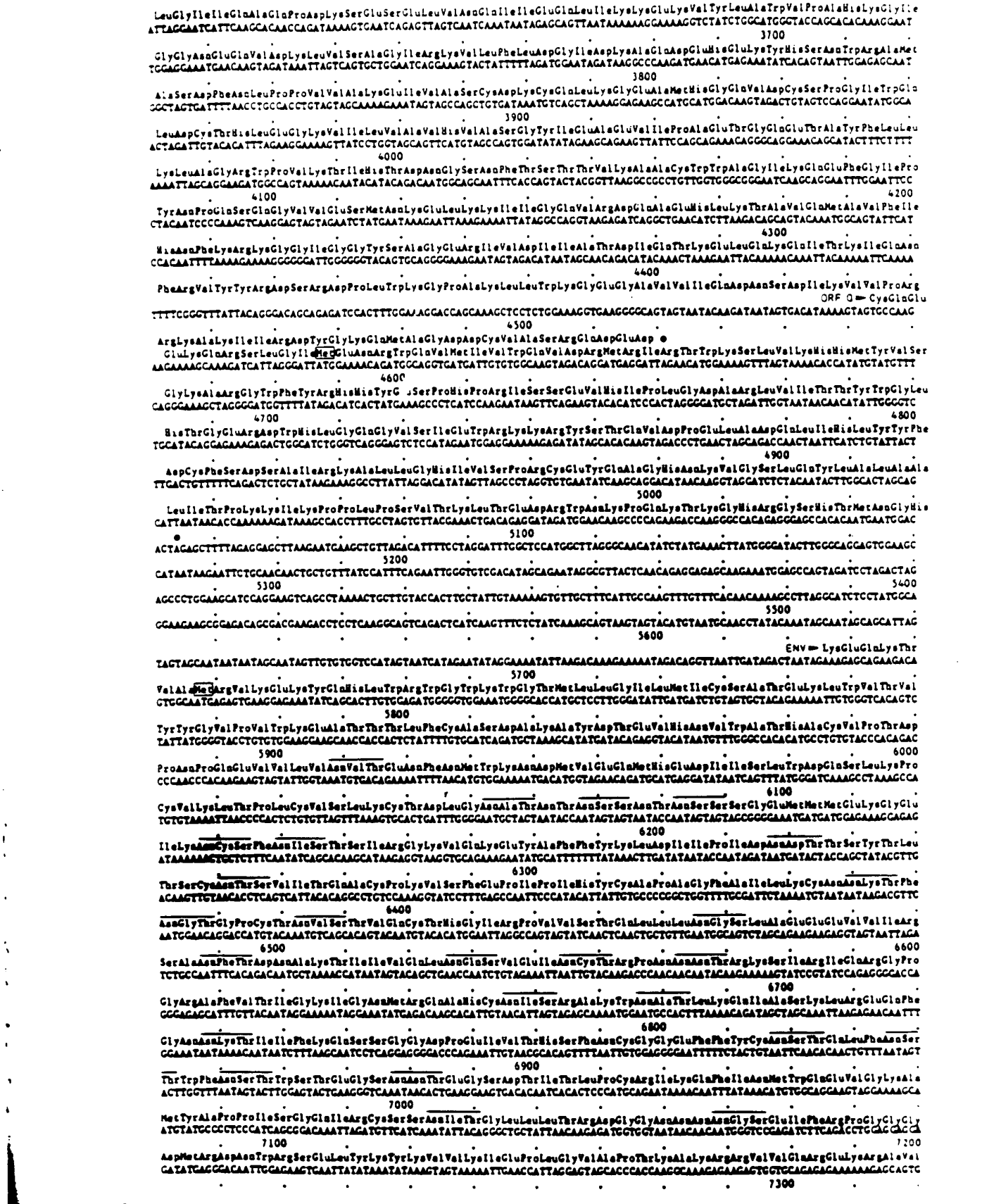
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5500
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ENV ═ LysGluGlnLysThr
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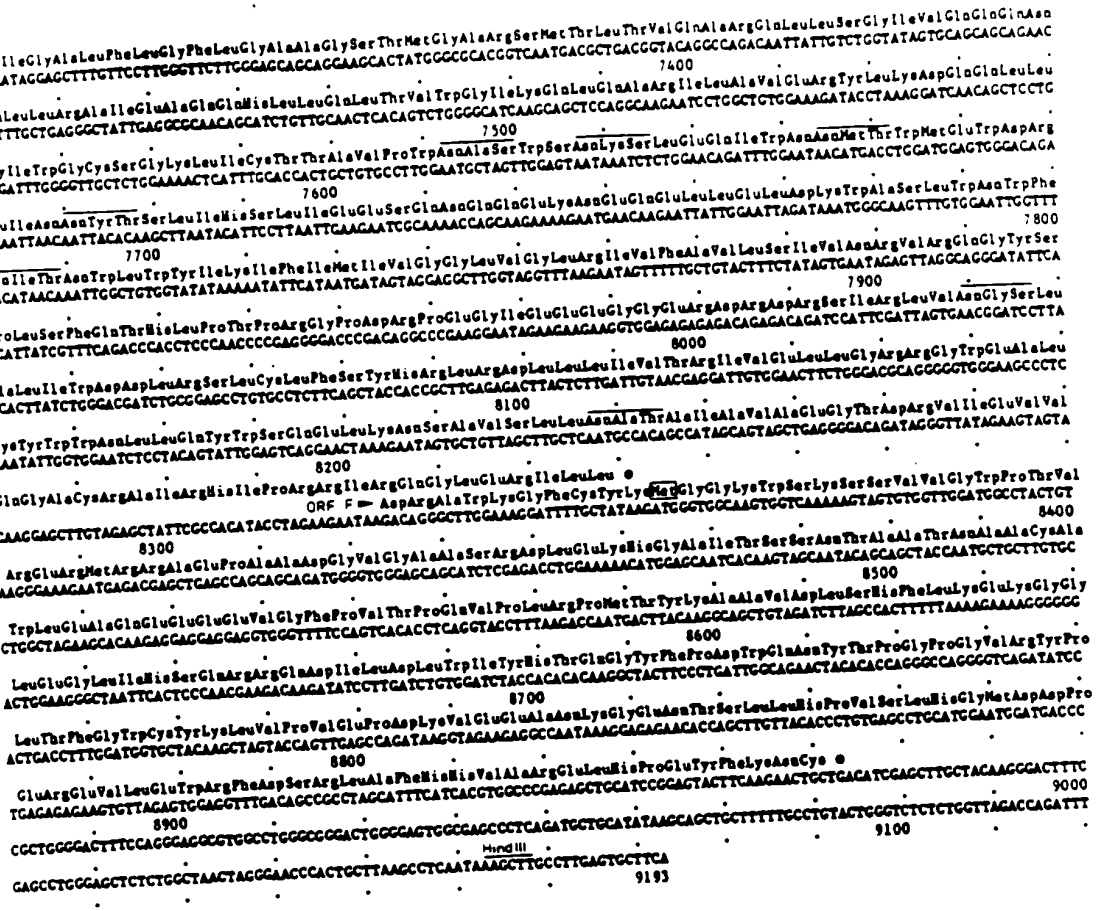

Figure 1. Complete DNA Sequence of Viral Genome (LAV-1a)

The sequence was reconstructed from the sequence of phage λJ19 insert. The numbering starts at the cap site, which was located experimentally (see above). Important genetic elements, major open reading frames, and their predicted products are indicated together with the Hind III cloning sites. The potential glycosylation sites in the env gene are overlined. The NH_2- terminal sequence of $p25^{gag}$ determined by protein microsequencing is boxed (Genetic Systems, personal communication).

Each nucleotide was sequenced on average 5.3 times: 85% of the sequence was determined on both strands and the remainder was sequenced at least twice from independent clones. The base composition is T, 22.2%; C, 17.8%; A, 35.8%; G, 24.2%; G + C, 42%. The dinucleotide CpG is greatly under-represented (0.9%) as is common among eukaryotic sequences (Bird, 1980).

The LTR

The organization of a reconstructed LTR and viral flanking elements are shown schematically in Figure 3. The LTR is 638 bp long and displays usual features (Chen and Barker, 1984): it is bounded by an inverted repeat (5'ACTG) including the conserved TG dinucleotide (Temin, 1981); adjacent to 5' LTR is the tRNA primer binding site (PBS), complementary to $tRNA_3^{lys}$ (Raba et al., 1979); adjacent to 3' LTR is a perfect 15 bp polypurine tract. The other three polypurine tracts observed between nucleotides 8200–8800 are not followed by a sequence that is complementary to that just preceding the PBS.

The limits of U5, R, and U3 elements were determined as follows. U5 is located between PBS and the polyadenylation site established from the sequence of the 3' end of oligo(dT)-primed LAV cDNA (Alizon et al., 1984). Thus U5 is 84 bp long. The length of R+U5 was determined by synthesizing tRNA-primed LAV cDNA. After alkaline hydroly-

Table 1. Locations and Sizes of Viral Open Reading Frames

orf	1st Triplet	Met	Stop	No. Amino Acids	M, Calc.
gag	312	336	1,836	500	55,841
pol	1,631	1,934	4,640	(1,003)	(113,629)
orf Q	4,554	4,587	5,163	192	22,487
env	5,746	5,767	8,350	861	97,376
orf F	8,324	8,354	8,972	206	23,316

The nucleotide coordinates refer to the first base of the first triplet (1st triplet), of the first methionine (initiation) codon (Met) and of the stop codon (Stop). The numbers of amino acids and molecular weights are those calculated for unmodified precursor products starting at the first methionine through to the end, with the exception of pol, where the size and M, refer to that of the whole orf.

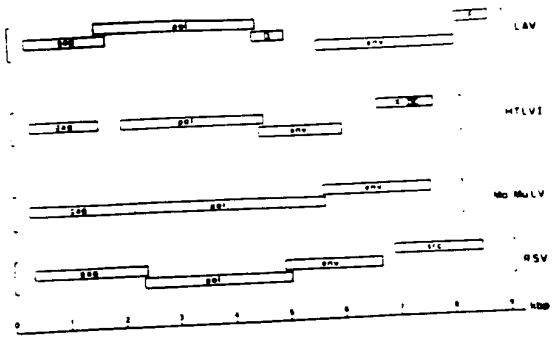

Figure 2. Comparison of the Genome Organization of LAV with Those of Human T Cell Leukemia/Lymphoma Virus Type I (HTLV-I) (Seiki et al., 1983), Moloney Murine Leukemia Virus (MoMuLV) (Shinnick et al., 1981), and Rous Sarcoma Virus (RSV) (Schwartz et al., 1983)

The positions and sizes of viral genes are drawn to scale (open boxes) and the viral genomes (RNA forms) are delimited by brackets.

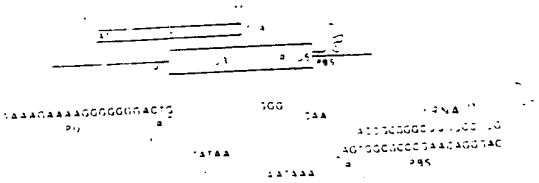

Figure 3. Schematic Representation of the LAV Long Terminal Repeat (LTR)

The LTR was reconstructed from the sequence of λ19 by juxtaposing the sequences adjacent to the Hind III cloning sites. Sequencing of oligo(dT)-primed LAV DNA clone pLAV75 (Alizon et al., 1984) rules out the possibility of clustered Hind III sites in the R region of LAV LTR are limited by an inverted repeat sequence (IR). Both of the viral elements flanking the LTR have been represented as tRNA primer binding site (PBS) for 5' LTR and polypurine track (PU) for 3' LTR. Also indicated are a putative TATA box, the cap site, polyadenylation signal (AATAAA), and polyadenylation site (CAA). The location of the open reading frame F (648 nucleotides) is shown above the LTR scheme.

sis of the primer, R+U5 was found to be 181 ±1 bp (Figure 4). Thus R is 97 bp long and the cap site at its 5' end can be located. Finally, U3 is 456 bp long. The LAV LTR also contains characteristic regulatory elements: a polyadenylation signal sequence AATAAA 19 bp from the R-U5 junction, and the sequence ATATAAG, which is very likely the TATA box, 22 bp 5' of the cap site. There are no long direct repeats within the LTR. Interestingly, the LAV LTR shows some similarities to that of the mouse mammary tumor virus (MMTV) (Donehower et al., 1981). They both use $tRNA^{lys}_3$ as a primer for (−) strand synthesis, whereas all other exogenous mammalian retroviruses known to date use $tRNA^{pro}$ (Chen and Barker, 1984). They possess very similar polypurine tracts; that of LAV is AAAAGAAAAGGGGGG while that of MMTV is AAAAAAGAAAAAAGGGGG. It is probable that the viral (+) strand synthesis is discontinuous since the polypurine tract flanking the U3 element of the 3'LTR is found exactly duplicated in the 3' end of orf pol, at 4331–4346. In addition, MMTV and LAV are exceptional in that the U3 element can encode an orf. In the case of MMTV, U3 contains the whole orf while, in LAV, U3 contains 110 codons of the 3' half of orf F.

Viral Proteins

gag

Near the 5' extremity of the gag orf is a "typical" initiation codon (Kozak, 1984) (position 336), which is not only the first in the gag orf, but the first from the cap site. The precursor protein is 500 amino acids long. The calculated M_r of 55,841 agrees with the 55 kd gag precursor polypeptide (Luc Montagnier, unpublished results). The N-terminal amino acid sequence of the major core protein p25, obtained by microsequencing (Genetic Systems, personal communication), matches perfectly with the translated nucleotide sequence starting from position 732 (see Figure 1). This formally makes the link between the cloned LAV genome and the immunologically characterized LAV p25 protein. The protein encoded 5' of the p25 coding sequence is rather hydrophilic. Its calculated M_r of 14,866 is consistent with that of the gag protein p18. The 3' part of the gag region probably codes for the retroviral nucleic acid binding protein (NBP). Indeed, as in HTLV-I (Seiki et al., 1983) and RSV (Schwartz et al., 1983), the motif Cys-X_2-Cys-X_{6-9}-Cys common to all NBP (Oroszlan et al., 1984) is found duplicated (nucleotides 1509 and 1572 in LAV sequence). Consistent with its function the putative NBP is extremely basic (17% Arg + Lys).

pol

The reverse transcriptase gene can encode a protein of up to 1003 amino acids (calculated M_r = 113,629). Since the first methionine codon is 92 triplets from the origin of the open reading frame, it is possible that the protein is translated from a spliced messenger RNA, giving a gag-pol polyprotein precursor.

The pol coding region is the only one in which significant homology has been found with other retroviral protein sequences, three domains of homology being apparent. The first is a very short region of 17 amino acids (starting at 1856). Homologous regions are located within the p15 gag^{RSV} protease (Dittmar and Moelling, 1978) and a polypeptide encoded by an open reading frame located between gag and pol of HTLV-I (Figure 5) (Schwartz et al., 1983; Seiki et al., 1983). This first domain could thus correspond to a conserved sequence in viral proteases. Its different locations within the three genomes may not be significant since retroviruses, by splicing or other mechanisms, express a gag-pol polyprotein precursor (Schwartz et al., 1983; Seiki et al., 1983). The second and most extensive region of homology (starting at 2048) probably represents the core sequence of the reverse transcriptase. Over a region of 250 amino acids, with only minimal insertions or deletions, LAV shows 38% amino acid identity with RSV, 25% with HTLV-I, and 21% with MoMuLV (Schinnick et al., 1981) while HTLV-I and RSV show 38% identity in the same region. A third homologous region is situated at the 3' end of the pol reading frame and corresponds to part of the pp32 peptide of RSV that has exonuclease activity (Misra et al., 1982). Once again, there is greater homology with the corresponding RSV sequence than with HTLV-I.

env

The env open reading frame has a possible initiator methionine codon very near the beginning (eighth triplet).

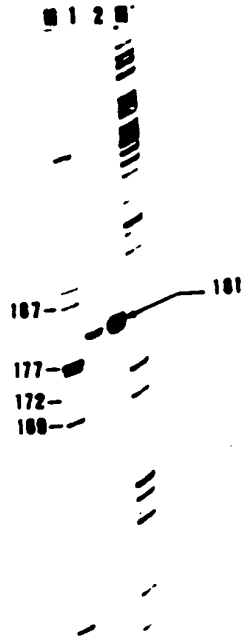

Figure 4. Synthesis of RNA-Primed LAV cDNA for R+U5 (Strong-Stop cDNA)

Lanes 1 and 2 show two different quantities of cDNA while lanes M and M' represent markers. The strong-stop cDNA is 181 bases long with a second, less intense band at 180. The error of estimation is ±1 bp. This maps the major cap site to the second G residue of the sequence CTGGGTCT within the LTR, 24 nucleotides downstream of the TATA box. This guanosine residue is taken as the first base in the nucleotide sequence shown in Figure 1.

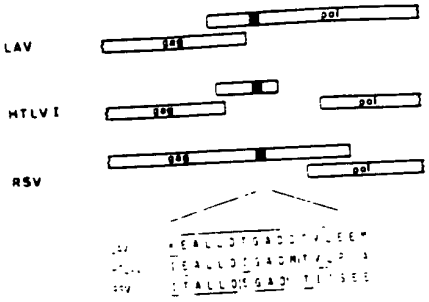

Figure 5. Location of a Short Stretch of Homology in the gag-pol Region of the LAV, HTLV-I (Seiki et al., 1983) and RSV (Schwartz et al., 1983) Genomes

Conserved amino acids are boxed. Homologous region is shown by the solid bar in the schema. Each virus is organized differently in this region but the sequence in the RSV genome maps to $p15^{gag}$, which has a protease-associated function.

If so, the molecular weight of the presumed env precursor protein (861 amino acids, M_r calc = 97,376) is consistent with the known size of the LAV glycoprotein (110 kd and 90 kd after glycosidase treatment; Luc Montagnier, unpublished). There are 32 potential N-glycosylation sites (Asn-X-Ser/Thr), which are overlined in Figure 1. An interesting feature of env is the very high number of Trp residues at both ends of the protein. There are three hydrophobic regions, characteristic of the retroviral envelope proteins (Seiki et al., 1983), corresponding to a signal peptide (encoded by nucleotides 5815–5850 bp), a second region (7315–7350 bp), and a transmembrane segment (7831–7896 bp). The second hydrophobic region (7315–7350 bp) is preceded by a stretch rich in Arg + Lys. It is possible that this represents a site of proteolytic cleavage, which, by analogy with other retroviral proteins, would give an external envelope polypeptide and a membrane-associated protein (Seiki et al., 1983; Kiyokawa et al., 1984). A striking feature of the LAV envelope protein sequence is that the region following the transmembrane segment is of unusual length (150 residues). The env protein shows no homology to any sequence in protein data banks. The small amino acid motif common to the transmembrane proteins of all leukemogenic retroviruses (Cianciolo et al., 1984) is not present in LAV env.

Q and F

The location of orf Q is without precedent in the structure of retroviruses. Orf F is unique in that it is half-encoded by the U3 element of the LTR. Both orf have strong initiator codons (Kozak, 1984) near their 5' ends and can encode proteins of 192 amino acids (M_r calc = 22,487) and 206 amino acids (M_r calc = 23,316), respectively. Both putative proteins are hydrophilic (pQ 49% polar, 15.1% Arg + Lys; pF 46% polar, 11% Arg + Lys) and are therefore unlikely to be associated directly with membrane. The function for the putative proteins pQ and pF cannot be predicted, as no homology was found by screening protein sequence data banks. Between orf F and the pX protein of HTLV-I there is no detectable homology. Furthermore, their hydrophobicity/hydrophilicity profiles are completely different. It is known that retroviruses can transduce cellular genes—notably proto-oncogenes (Weinberg, 1982). We suggest that orfs Q and F represent exogenous genetic material and not some vestige of cellular DNA because LAV DNA does not hybridize to the human genome under stringent conditions (Alizon et al., 1984), and their codon usage is comparable to that of the gag, pol, and env genes (data not shown).

Relationship to Other Retroviruses

Although LAV is both morphologically and biochemically (Barré-Sinoussi et al., 1983) distinct to HTLV-I and -II, it remained possible that its genome was organized in a similar manner. The characteristic features of HTLV-I and -II genomes, which they share with the more distantly related bovine leukemia virus (BLV) (Rice et al., 1984), are not observed in the case of LAV. These are: a region 3' of the envelope gene consisting of a noncoding stretch (600–900 bp), followed by a coding sequence of 307–357 codons (X open reading frame), which may slightly overlap the U3 region of the LTR (Seiki et al., 1983; Rice et al., 1984; Sagata et al., 1984) and, second, the LTR being

Table 2. Comparison of the Size of the LAV LTR and LTR-Related Element to Those of Other Retroviruses

	LTR	U3	R	U5	PU	PBS	IR
LAV	638	456	97	85	15	LYS	4
HTLV-I	759	355	228	176	12'	PRO	4'
HTLV-II	763	314	248	261	12'	PRO	4'
MMTV	1,332	1,197	11	124	19	LYS	8'
MoMuLV	594	449	68	77	13	PRO	13
RSV	335	234	21	80	11	TRP	15
SNV	601	420	97	80	13	PRO	9

Adapted from Chen and Barker (1984).
i = imperfect match or tract.
SNV = spleen necrosis virus (Shimotohno and Temin, 1982).

composed of unusually long U5 and R elements and the polyadenylation signal being situated in U3 instead of R (Seiki et al., 1983; Sagata et al., 1984; Shimotohono et al., 1984). We show here that, in contrast, the 3' end of the LAV envelope gene overlaps an open reading frame, termed F, that has the coding capacity for 206 amino acids and extends within the LTR (110 amino acids are encoded by the U3 region). The putatively encoded polypeptide (pF), the primary structure of which can be deduced, does not show any homology with the theoretical X gene products of the HTLV/BLV family. Also, the U5 and R elements are shorter (Table 2) and the polyadenylation signal is located within R, as is the case for all retroviruses except the HTLV/BLV. Additionally, LAV uses $tRNA_3^{lys}$ as (−) strand primer, as opposed to $tRNA^{pro}$ employed by all other mammalian retroviruses except MMTV (Donehower et al., 1981). Those homologies detected between the polymerase and protease domains of LAV and HTLV are also found in several retroviruses, RSV in particular.

It has been reported that a cloned HTLV-III genome hybridizes (T_m = 28°C) to sequences in the gag-pol and X regions of HTLV-I and -II; although restriction maps of cloned LAV and HTLV-III show almost perfect agreement (Hahn et al., 1984), we were unable to detect any such hybridization between LAV and HTLV-II (T_m = 55°C) (Alizon et al., 1984). Indeed, there is a punctual region of homology between LAV and HTLV-I (23/27' nucleotides starting at position 1859 in the LAV sequence) but nothing significant between the two viruses in the X region of HTLV-I. One possible reason for this discrepancy is that HTLV-III is subtly different from LAV. However it was subsequently reported that there was very minimal, if any, homology between orf X (of HTLV-I) and HTLV-III (Shaw et al., 1984).

Discussion

Regulatory sequences carried by retroviral LTR are believed to be involved in specific interactions between the viral genome and the host cell (Srinivasan et al., 1984). The LTR sequences of LAV are unique among retroviruses. That could reflect an original mode of gene expression, possibly in relation to particular transcriptional factors present in the virus-harboring cell. This hypothesis can be tested by studying the regulatory activity of the LAV LTR sequences in transient or long-term experiments involving an indicator gene and different cellular contexts.

The presence of the Q and F reading frames in addition to the conventional gag-pol-env set of genes is unexpected. One should now address the question of their role in the viral cycle and pathogenicity by trying to characterize their protein product(s). It is tempting to speculate on a role of such polypeptide(s) in T4 cells' mortality, a problem that can be studied by designing synthetic peptides for antibody production or by using site-directed mutagenesis of Q and F coding regions.

The peculiar genetic structure of LAV poses the question of its origin. The virus shares common tracts with other (apparently unrelated) retroviruses. For instance, the unusually large size of the outer membrane glycoprotein (env) and a comparably sized genome are also observed in the case of lentiviruses such as Visna (Harris et al., 1981; Querat et al., 1984). The presence of a large part of the F open reading frame in the LTR, and the use of $tRNA_3^{lys}$ as a primer for (−) strand synthesis, is reminiscent of the mouse mammary tumor virus. On the other hand, homologies in the pol gene would suggest that the LAV is closer to RSV than to any other retroviruses. Obviously, no clear picture can be drawn from the DNA sequence analysis as far as phylogeny is concerned. Thus, it may well be that LAV defines a new group of retroviruses that have been independently evolving for a considerable period of time, and not simply a variant recently derived from a characterized viral family. Both epidemiology and pathogeny of AIDS should be reconsidered with this idea in mind, when trying to answer such questions as these: Are there other human or animal diseases that are associated with similarly organized viruses? Is there a precursor to AIDS-associated virus(es) normally present, in latent form, in human populations? What triggered in this case the recent spreading of pathogenic derivatives?

Experimental Procedures

M13 Cloning and Sequencing

Total LJ19 DNA was sonicated, treated with the Klenow fragment of DNA polymerase plus deoxyribonucleotides (2 hr, 16°C), and fractionated by agarose gel electrophoresis. Fragments of 300–600 bp were excised, electroeluted, and purified by Elutip (Schleicher and Schüll) chromatography. DNA was ethanol-precipitated using 10 μg dextran T40 (Pharmacia) as carrier and ligated to dephosphorylated, Sma I-cleaved M13mp8 RF DNA using T4 DNA and RNA ligases (16 hr, 16°C) and transfected into E. coli strain TG-I. Recombinant clones were detected by plaque hybridization using the appropriate ^{32}P-labeled LAV restriction fragments as probes. Single-stranded templates were prepared from plaques exhibiting positive hybridization signals and were sequenced by the dideoxy chain termination procedure (Sanger et al., 1977) using α-^{35}S-dATP (Amersham, 400 Ci/mmol) and buffer gradient gels (Biggen et al., 1983). Sequences were compiled and analyzed using the programs of Staden adapted by B. Caudron for the Institut Pasteur Computer Center (Staden, 1982).

Strong-Stop cDNA

LAV virions from infected T lymphocyte (Barré-Sinoussi et al., 1983) culture supernatant were pelleted through a 20% sucrose cushion and the cDNA (−) strand was synthesized as described previously (Alizon et al., 1984) except that no exogenous primer was used. After alkaline hydrolysis (0.3 M NaOH, 30 min, 65°C), neutralization and phenol extraction, the cDNA was ethanol-precipitated and loaded onto a 6%

acrylamide/8 M urea sequencing gel with sequence ladders as size markers.

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